DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 294 328 EA 020 039

AUTHOR Hyman, Irwin A.; Zelikoff, Wendy
TITLE Psychological Abuse in the Schools: An Overview.
INSTITUTION Temple Univ., Philadelphia, Pa. National Center for the Study of Corporal Punishment and Alternatives in the Schools.
PUB DATE Mar 87
NOTE 22p.; Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the National Association of School Psychologists (New Orleans, LA, March 4-8, 1987). Contains some faint and broken print.
PUB TYPE Reports - Research/Technical (143) -- Speeches/Conference Papers (150)

EDRS PRICE MF01/PC01 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS *Child Abuse; Classroom Techniques; *Corporal Punishment; Demography; *Discipline; Elementary Secondary Education; *Emotional Problems; Parent Grievances; Psychological Studies; School Surveys; *Teacher Behavior; Teacher Student Relationship
IDENTIFIERS National Association of School Psychologists; Posttraumatic Stress Disorder

ABSTRACT

Extreme classroom discipline can cause post-traumatic stress disorders (PTSD) in children. Only extraordinary stressors qualify as stressors resulting in PTSD, yet this requirement is inadequate. Although corporal punishment may be common and acceptable in certain areas, acutely corporally punished children exhibit PTSD, regardless of the region. Further, the requirement is inadequate because stressors affect individuals differently. Common practices confined to given regions should not dictate whether or not a child may be diagnosed as traumatic as a consequence of corporal punishment. Discipline causing stress occurs on two levels. The first level consists of stressors such as criticism of the children, sarcasm, scapegoating, ignoring the children, and demanding too much of the children. On the second level, extreme stressors like verbal attacks and corporal punishment are proven to cause trauma. Thirty-one phone interviews in the Appalachian area reveal symptoms such as avoidance of school and fear of practitioners, loss of trust in adults, loss of enthusiasm for school, refusal to discuss the stressor, nightmares, crying, need for praise, aggressive behavior, and fear of sleeping alone. Symptoms of the resulting family stress include fear, frustration, anger, anxiety, depression, and feelings of guilt. Includes 49 references. (RG)

****
* Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made *
* from the original document. *
****

ED294328

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
Office of Educational Research and Improvement
EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)

☒ This document has been reproduced as received from the person or organization originating it.
☐ Minor changes have been made to improve reproduction quality.

• Points of view or opinions stated in this document do not necessarily represent official OERI position or policy.

"PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY

Irwin A Hyman

TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)."

Psychological Abuse in the Schools: An Overview

Irwin A. Hyman Wendy Zelikoff

National Center for the Study of Corporal Punishment and Alternatives in the Schools
Temple University

EA 020 039

Paper presented at the Annual Convention of the National Association of School Psychologists, New Orlean, March 5, 1986.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

Abstract

The literature on Post-Traumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD) in children is rather sparse. Most accounts describe only the after-effects of horrendous traumas. Yet there is evidence that children are also vulnerable to a wider range of stressors than are adults. Since the nosology for PTSD is based upon adult psychopathology, there is a need to examine the syndrome in light of current knowledge about child development and psychopathology. The purpose of this paper is to present evidence that the pattern of symptoms of PTSD in children can be generated in by educators. The paradigm presented evolved from studies of children and youth who were the victims of excessively punitive disciplinary practices in schools.

Psychological Abuse

in the Schools: An Overview

Despite the growing amount of literature concerning PTSD, there is relatively little written about the nature and extent of this syndrome among children (Figley, 1985; Hyman, 1985; Pynoos & Eth, 1985; Zelikoff, 1986). For example, child victims of maltreatment such as physical and sexual abuse have received a great deal of attention. Yet, the psychological sequelae of these abuses have not been well studied through empirical research. The investigations available tend to deal with etiological factors related to social stress, parental psychopathology, disturbances in family patterns, and parent/child interactions (Lamphear, 1985)

Most of the evidence regarding PTSD in children is related to exceptional stressors resulting in symptoms often similar, but not identical to those observed in adults. Historically, psychiatric nosology for PTSD has been oriented toward adult pathology (American Psychiatric Association, 1980). Such horrendous events as wars, natural disasters, family violence and rape are clearly traumatizing for both adults and children (Lifton & Olson, 1976; Terr, 1977). But is adult oriented diagnosis appropriate and useful for understanding the coping statagies of children? The answer to this question has profound mental health and legal implications for the diagnosis and treatment of stress related problems in children. The distinctions between adult and childhood PTSD are especially

crucial for use in expert testimony to clarify issues of compensation in tort litigation. However, besides the need to clarify the nature of symptoms of PTSD in children, the issue of statistical incidence of traumatic stressors must be examined.

There is evidence that children are more vulnerable to less extreme stressors than those which may cause PTSD in adults (Pynoos & Eth, 1985; Raifman, 1983; Zelikoff, 1986). While children and adults may be equally vulnerable to unpredictable disasters, children may be more at risk in relation to stressors in society over which they have relatively little control. For instance, increasing poverty, especially in cities has led to rising numbers of children with symptoms similar to those witnessed in PTSD (Stein, 1986). Do the increasing numbers of these children exclude them from a PTSD diagnosis because the traumas that cause the symptoms do not fulfill the criteria of stressors "outside the range of common human experience"?

The major purpose of this paper is to explore the above issues within the context of schooling. Disciplinary excesses of educators provide examples of a wide range of unusual and severe traumic events over which children have little or no control. The concepts presented grew out of initial psychological evaluations of children who had been severely corporally punished by educators. While diagnoses of PTSD seemed clear, courtroom testimony by opposing experts invariably depended on symptoms described in DSM III which are based on adult pathology. These early experiences prompted the clinical and ecological research reported here.

While most of the examples cited deal with the emotional

sequelae of the infliction of physical pain, the same types of symptoms were observed in victims of psychological maltreatment. It is difficult to imagine that the two do not occur simultaneously. Therefore, emotional trauma is at the core of all abuse of children and the same symptoms appear if the abuse is only psychological (Gabarino & Yondra, 1983; Hyman, 1985).

Most of the examples cited occurred in public schools. However, the formulations presented are intended to apply to all institutions which provide education and treatment in the lives of children and youth. These institutions include mental hospitals, correctional facilities and schools. It is especially noteworthy that while there are periodic exposes of abusive conditions in institutions of the first two types, there is relatively little attention given physical and psychosocial stressors which are"institutionalized".

The following sections of this paper are offered in support of a paradigm for educator induced post-traumatic stress disorder (EIPTSD)

Educator Induced Post-Traumatic Stress Disorder (EIPTSD)

A major diagnostic indicator of PTSD is that the stressor must be "outside the range of common human experience." This requirement causes problems for diagnosing children who experience abuses in schools that many citizens consider commonplace and acceptable. Within the traditional nosology, societal/institutional stressors are considered too common to be included as causes of PTSD. This is especially relevant when considering idiographic vs. normative considerations as the basis

for a diagnostic classification system.

For purposes of this paper, it is proposed that both of these issues can be addressed within the context of schools. In one sense, a normative solution is suggested, since there is a continuum of severity of stressors to which children are exposed. For instance, in the South, an extremely high percentage of children, depending on the particular school district, are exposed to corporal punishment. It is a routine disciplinary practice, and therefore, is accepted as a normal part of southern culture (Clarke, Erdlen and Hyman, 1984). Several studies strongly indicate that the extent and intensity of these practices are related to demographic factors, especially geographical and socioeconomic (Farley, 1983). For instance, rural southern communities will generally tolerate more frequent and severe uses of pain-inflicting disciplinary techniques than will affluent suburbs in the northeast (Farley, 1983; Glackman et al., 1978). Surveys of judicial decisions (Hyman, Fudell, Johnson, & Clarke, 1985; Clarke, 1986) and newspaper editorial opinions (McDowell & Friedman, 1979) clearly indicate the importance of demography in determining acceptable limits of abuse. In tort cases, the limits of liability are determined by these demographic factors in assessing the use of "reasonable force" in the administration of corporal punishment (Hyman, Clarke, Fudell, & Johnson, 1985). For instance, swatting a school child with a wooden paddle, a common practice in Arkansas and North Carolina, rarely ends in litigation, much less a conviction of the paddler. However, in New Jersey or Massachusetts, where that form of school disicpline has been

illegal for many years, a jury would be much more likely to convict a teacher who dared to strike a child as punishment. Where it is illegal, teachers attitudes change. A study by Bogacki (1981) demonstrated that teachers in New Jersey were much less favorable to the use of corporal punishment than were those in Texas and Pennsylvania where it is legally permissable.

Most children who are corporally punished do not appear to develop PTSD. Therefore, within normative parameters, it is unlikely that tort liability can be established just because a child is hit by a teacher. One would assume when the corporal punishment increases in severety or frequency resulting in demonstrable PTSD symptoms that it has gone beyond the "usual" and would be considered traumatic. Based on normative standards, this should be the case. Yet, in most cases, judges and juries do not accept PTSD as a valid diagnosis; their usual rationale being that the force used was reasonable. This point will be illustrated later in the paper by use of actual cases.

The examples to be presented suggest that when societal/institutional standards are used in tort litigation, the normative model for PTSD lacks credibility in certain ares of the country. Therefore an idiographic model must be used, since our clinical and research experience suggests that severely corporally punished children clearly demonstrate PTSD, despite court rulings (Hyman, Fudell, Johnson & Clarke, 1985).

In the Northeast, corporal punishment is relatively rare in the schools. Attitudes of teachers is states like New Jersey, where it has been banned for over 100 years, are generally

negative towards its use as compared to teachers in Texas where it is used regularily (Bogacki, 1981). This attitude is conveyed to parents who sometimes ask teachers or principal to hit children. Therefore, educators who do inflict pain on school children are much more likely to be prosecuted and juries are much more likely to accept diagnoses of PTSD for school children who have been hit.

Raifman (1983) points out that the requirement that the stressors in PTSD must be " outside the range of common human experiance" may not be always appropriate since some common stressors such as death, divorce, etc., may have a wide range of affects on different people. This requirement further presents problems in the development of a paradigm for EIPTSD, since both verbal and physical assaults upon school chidren have traditionally been acceptable at varying levels in much of the country (Hyman & Wise, 1979). The latter usually falls under the rubric of corporal punishment, a euphemism covering everything from a few "swats" to bloody beatings (Clarke, Erdlen & Hyman, 1984).

It is difficult to establish the existence of emotional trauma as the result of a paddling if it is considered a common, acceptable, and required disciplinary procedure; i.e., "the child deserved it." This concept is embedded in local mores, but it is not scientifically acceptable that psychological nosology should be dependent on where a child goes to school!

Disciplinary excesses and abuses receive little public attention. Their occurences are considered rare and easily corrected since schools are felt to be open institutions. Abuses

are thought to be controlled by ongoing public scrutiny as suggested by the Supreme Court in Ingraham v. Wright (1977). Further, public trust in educators is reflected in the concept of "in loco parentis", by which educators automatically are given certain parental powers. Therefore, parents and the public assume that perpetrators of severe disciplinary procedures will be punished. They tend to assume that educators are held accountable through state child abuse laws, but this is generally not the case (Clarke, 1986).

Almost all adult citizens have attended school and many have witnesses or been the recipients of potentially traumatizing disciplinary events. The present researchers are currently studying the actual extent of this phenomenon and present initial findings later in this paper. Data available suggest that most people consider that some level of abuse in school is an inevitable part of life; therefore, many parents feel that their children must learn to deal with excessively punitive educators as appropriate preparation for the stresses of adult life.

Children who are excessively punished may be afraid to report to their parents for fear of receiving further punishment at home. When parents learn of excesses they may be apprehensive that confrontation with educators will result in covert revenge against their children and even siblings (Clarke, 1986).

Experiences of the researchers with litigation involving traumatized school children suggest the existence of a very subtle force mitigating against successful suits. In essence, public schools are heavily supported by local taxpayers.

Especially in poor rural areas of the country, litigation against schools stirs a great deal of interest by citizens who are quite conscious of who will ultimately pay for a financial loss. This issue is especially cogent in relation to a reported crisis regarding increased liability insurance rates. Even though punitive and compensatory awards to plaintiff school children are rarely as large as those given when other government agencies are involved, the legal costs and attendant publicity quite often result in community resentment against the plaintiffs (Hyman, Fudell, Johnson, & Clarke, 1985). Data and subjective observations suggest that these factors may provide subtle and perhaps unconscious motivators for the frequent rulings against plaintiffs (Hyman et al., 1985). In fact, in a number of well-publicized cases, expert testimony by physicians, child abuse authorities, and psychologists indicated that the children were abused under legal definition according to standards used for judging parental culpability. Yet educators were not held to the same standards which would have resulted in conviction had they inflicted the same damage upon their own children. In summary, there are a variety of factors, some not discussed above, which mitigate against public or professional consideration of schools as sources of sufficient stress to result in PTSD.

Considering the above, it is proposed that the schools actually have serious potential to inflict emotional/physical abuse which can lead to clinically identifiable stress disorders. The two sources of abuse are: (1) practices resulting from societal/institutional sanctions and (2) pedagogical procedures used by educators in the name of discipline and motivation. For

purposes of discussion, these types of stressors are considered abuses. The types discussed fit statutory descriptions of child abuse and neglect within the home, child care institutions and correctional facilities.

In addition to the above, there are other contributors to abuse at this level. Mental cruelty may be assumed as a result of labelling of children (Brown, 1977), refusing service to children, (Polier, 1975), stereotyping (Laury & Meerloo, 1967), offering inadequate curricula (Gold, 1978), insisting on inappropriate developmental goals (Brown, 1977), and depersonalizing the environment (Laury & Meerloo, 1967). Verbal abuse and denigration are almost always associated with the lack of a clear and just method of school discipline (Hyman et al., 1979; Hyman & D'Allesandro, 1984).

Routine Verbal/Physical Stressors

Routine use of certain disciplinary techniques may cause stress when teachers or administrators use verbal or physical techniques of discipline which humiliate or embarrass school children. Initial research into the extent of these types of stressors is reported in Table 1 in a previous section of this paper. This type of abuse occurs at two levels.

Level I-Mild to Moderate Stressors

At the first level is the use of routine verbal and physical techniques which cause mild amounts of stress in most students. This occurs by the use of casual, automatic and unthinking use of criticism of children. Also included are punishment techniques which embarrass or humilitate such as sarcasm, scapegoating, and

hur .r at the expense of students. This is a favorite technique of some r oaches, who use various demeaning nicknames to "motivate" their charges.

At the routine level, most teachers consider that they use these techniques to "get children's attention." When questioned, teachers often respond that they are just "joking around." Terms like "knucklehead, motor mouth, and dummy" are just "affectionate terms" which are used to keep students controlled and obedient.

While acts of commission are included at this level, there are also acts of omission. Purposefully and continually ignoring students and never reinforcing them are insidious forms of stress. On the other hand, teachers who are overly perfectionistic and demanding can cause unnecessary trauma.

Many of the educators who use the practices described above do not consciously mean to cause harm. Recent research suggests that many seemingly innocuous punitive techniques occur mostly because of modeling. Staff at the National Center for the Study of Corporal Punishment and Alternatives in the Schools have conducted a series of studies of punitiveness among teachers, psychologists and child care workers. The major predictor of punitive attitudes and practices is the amount of punishment the professionals received themselves as children (Lennox, 1982; Sofer, 1983; Pokalo, 1986).

The above type of stressors do not normally result in PTSD. However, as will be noted in the case studies a variety if idiosyncratic factors in a childs background may cause an extreme reaction to level 1 stressors.

Level II - Severe Stressors Resulting in Educator-Induced Post-Traumatic Stress Disorder

A review of court decisions indicates that educators, with relative impunity, may physically abuse children (Clarke, Erdlen, & Hyman, 1984; Clarke, Lieberman-Lascoe, & Hyman, 1980; Hyman, Fudell, Johnson, & Clarke, 1985).

In ongoing research which involves the study of severe corporal punishment cases and psychological evaluations of abused school children, a pattern of long-lasting psychological trauma emerged. Similar effects were also apparent without the use of corporal punishment when teachers constantly verbally assaulted children.

Two initial studies have been completed in examining the long-lasting effects of symptoms in EIPTSD. A recently completed doctoral dissertation by Clarke (1986) focused on a follow-up of 31 families who were identified through press clippings, correspondence, and a search of court rulings. The cases were confined to Appalachia because of funding stipulations. Because the initial research plan did not include an attempt to examine EIPTSD closely (having not been conceptualized at that time), the data collection was not as exhaustive as desired. Of the 31 families interviewed, it was possible to obtain information on observable symptoms from six months to twenty-two years after the event. The median was 2.5 years. Phone interviews used open-ended questions about the longevity of symptoms. A checklist might have better served such research purposes. Also, it must be noted that by nature, trauma related problems are often

psychologically suppressed and repressed, but resurrected later by triggering events. Six of the eleven children were also part of the original sample in the West Virginia study described earlier in this paper. It must be noted that multiple symptoms occurred in many children. In order of frequency, long lasting symptoms reported by parents were avoidance of school and fear associated with educators (9 cases); loss of trust and fear of adults, especially educators (6); loss of interest in school (5); denial or refusal to discuss the traumatic event (3); nightmares (2); and excessive crying (2). The following symptoms were observed in at least one child: excessive need of praise, aggressive behavior, and fear of going to bed alone.

Since 1977, federal law has required that "mental injury" appear in child abuse statutes. Because practices of neglect and psychological abuse are not new to child abuse workers, this requirement created no new conceptual problems in the more obvious cases. However, more subtle and pervasive forms of "mental injury," especially those occurring under color of law, present special problems. Many state courts and agencies have refused to intercede in the disciplinary practices of schools. For instance, a court in Pennsylvania specifically forbade the application of child abuse statutes in schools (PSEA v. Commonwealth of PA., 1982). Yet in West Virginia, the Department of Human Services filed child abuse charges against a teacher using the same standards applied to parents, (W. VA. Dept. of Human Services v. J. Boley, 1985). This case is presented in detail in another symposium at this conference.

Family Stress

A detailed account of parental involvement in cases of EIPTSD may be found elsewhere (Clarke, 1986; Hyman, Fudell, Johnson, & Clarke, 1985). Such research indicates that family stress is a very common occurrence and is almost always present in cases of more severe school abuse. Typically, when parents discover the symptoms and the causes, they seek redress from school authorities. Since these data are limited to those cases where parents receive no satisfactory response by the school, generalization is not yet possible. In our sample, the schools support the punisher, or they institute a mild penalty such as a written reprimand. Since, in most cases, the disciplinary practices which led to the symptoms in the children are considered to be commonplace, the school authorities begin to question the motives behind the complaints. The parents, especially the mothers, tend to become fearful, depressed and anxious for their children. Unlike most precipitating events in adult PTSD, the child victims are forced to return to the environment in which the stressor occurred. Because of legal sanctions regarding school attendence and educational priorities, the parents are in a classical "approach-avoidance" dilemma. The result is frustration, anger, anxiety and depression. Mothers seem to develop emotional problems more than do the fathers. However, this is only a clinical impression via interviews, not currently supported by data.

Because of attitudes of the school authorities, complaining parents often fear harrassment of their children. Their fears are realistic, even when it is difficult to identify additional

subtle stress placed on the children. Fathers frequently experience intense rage, and in some cases they have physically attacked school authorities (Clarke, Erdlen, & Hyman, 1984; Clarke, Liberman-Lascoe, & Hyman, 1980). Even in some of the more outrageous abuses, school authorities find it easier to defend the teacher than to attempt lengthy bureaucratic procedures necessary to discipline the offender. An exacerbating factor is the longevity of most cases when the parents feel they are forced to move through a case at the various bureaucratic levels until they, reluctantly, seek litigation. At each level, parents and children must relive the incident. Often, the children are back in school where the other students may harrass them for a variety of reasons. These include ridicule because the victim "couldn't take" the punishment or anger because the victim's family is suing a popular educator, especially if he is a coach. Parents may have intense feelings of guilt about the children being back in school. The continual reliving of the event may not serve to desensitize the child to the stressors, as might be the case with adults. The child does not have the ability to escape the situation as adults might. Further, the parents may not have the sophistication or financial resources to obtain treatment or send the child to another school. Unlike most stressors which typically cause PTSD, the stressors described above tend to continue for extended periods. This may contribute to the cases in which the overt effects of EIPTSD are long-lasting.

Future Directions

Our ongoing efforts represent an attempt to provide a data

large enough to conduct a factor analysis similar to one reported by Silver (1984) which could aid in the formulation of diagnostic strategies. Currently, diagnosis is very dependent on parent reports and the skill of the clinician. This skill can only be developed from exposure to a significant number of cases and therefore it is crucial that new nosology is recognized. A step toward this goal is presentation in the DSM III format in the appendix.

Chandler, Shermis, and Marsh (1985) have recently developed a stress response scale based on what the authors call a "circumplex model", which offers some promise. The present researchers have begun to use it to estimate children's coping behavior before and after the advent of the school stressors. While the present authors do not subscribe to outdated concepts of predisposing pathology in PTSD, they have preceived some possible predisposing factors leading to vulnerability. This is a difficult issue which needs a great deal of further study.

Continuation of the retrospective studies by Zelikoff and Hyman will help to clarify the frequency and intensity of unnecessary and damaging abuses of school children. Studies of children cuurently in school would eliminate memory lapses but might be difficult to complete due to possible lack of cooperation of school officials.

In conclusion, our research indicates that a suprisingly high rate of EIPTSD is apparant. The importance of demography poses a serious problem. Where children live should not determine their probability of being traumatized in school, nor should

techniques known to be traumatizing be allowed in the schools.

References

American Psychiatric Association (1980). Diagnostic and statistical manual of mental disorders, 3rd edition. Washington, D.C.: American Psychiatric Association.

Bogacki, D. (1981). Attitudes toward corporal punishment: Authoritarian personality and pupil control ideology of school personnel. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Temple University.

Brown, G.W. (1977). School: Child advocate or adversary? Clinical Pediatrics, 16 (5), 439-446.

Carmen, E., Rieker, P., & Mills, T. (1984) Victims of violence and psychiatric illness. American Journal of Psychiatry, 141, 378-383.

Chandler, L.A., Shermis, M.D., & Marsh, J. (1985). Journal of Psychoeducational Assessment, 3, 15-29.

Clarke, J. (1986). Some effects of corporal punishment and psychological abuse on school students and their parents. Unpublishsed doctoral dissertation, Temple University.

Clarke, J., Erdlen, R., & Human, I.A. (April, 1984). Analysis of recent corporal punishment cases reported in national newspapers. Paper presented at the annual convention of the National Association of School Psychologists, Philadelphia, PA.

Clarke, J., Liberman-Lascoe, R., & Hyman, I.A. (1982). Corporal punishment as reported in nationwide newspapers. Children and Youth Services, 4 (1 & 2), 47-56.

Danieli, Y. (1985). The treatment and prevention of long-term effects and intergenerational transmission of victimization: A lesson from Holocaust survivors and their children. In C. Figley (Ed.), Trauma and its wake, New York: Brunner/Mazel, Inc.

Deykin, E.Y., Alpert, J.J., & McNamara, J.J. (1985). A pilot study of the effect of exposure to child abuse or neglect on adolescent suicidal behavior. American Journal of Psychiatry, 142(11), 1299-1303.

Farley, A. (1983). National survey of the use and non-use of corporal punishment as a disciplinary technique within United States public schools. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Temple University.

Figley, C.R. (1985). Trauma and its Wake, New York: Brunner/Mazel.

Finkelhor, D., & Browne, A. (1985). The traumatic impact of child sexual abuse: A conceptualization. American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 55(4), 530-541.

Frederick, C. (1986) Human induced violence. Paper presented at the Second Annual Meeting of the Society for Traumatic Stress Studies, Denver Colorado, September 26, 1986.

Garbarino, J., & Vondra, J. (August, 1983). Psychological maltreatment of children and youth. Paper presented at the International Conference on Psychological Abuse of Children and Youth sponsored by the National Association of School Psychologist, Indianapolis, Indiana.

Glackman, T., Berv., V., Martin, R., McDowell, E., Spino, R., & Hyman, I.A. (1978). The relation between corporal punishment suspensions and discrimination. Inequality in Education, 23, 61-65 (Published by the Center for Law and Education, Cambridge, Mass.).

Hughes, H., & Barad, S. (1983). Psychological functioning of children in a battered women's shelter: Preliminary investigation. American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 53, 525-531.

Hyman, I.A. (August, 1985). Psychological abuse in the schools: A schools psychologist's perspective. Paper presented at the meeting of the American Psychological Association, Los Angeles.

Hyman, I. (in press). Corporal punishment in the schools. Encyclopedia of school administration and supervision. Phoenix, Arizona: The Oryx Press.

Hyman, I.A., Bilus, F., Dennehy, M.N., Feldman, G., Flannagan, D., Maital, S., & McDowell, E. (1979). Discipline in American education. Journal of Education, VII (2), 51-70.

Hyman, I.A. & D'Allesandro, J. (1984). Good old fashioned discipline: The politics of punitiveness. Phi Delta Kappan, 66 (1), 39-45.

Hyman, I.A., Fudell, R., Johnson, R., & Clarke, J. (April, 1985). Child abuse in the schools: Community and judicial attitudes. Paper presented at the meeting of the American Orthopsychiatric Association, New York City.

Hyman, I.A. & Wise, J. (1979). Corporal punishment in American education, Philadelphia: Temple University Press.

Ingraham v. Wright, 45. U.S.L.W. 4364 (4/19/77).

Jaffe, P., Wolfe, D., Wilson, S., & Zack, L. (1986). Similarities in behavioral and social maladjusment among child victims and witnesses to family violence. American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 56(1), 142-146.

Janus, M. McCormack, A., & Burgess, A. (1986). Symptomatology associated with post traumatic stress disorder. Running for their lives: Youth in turmoil. Lexington, MA: Lexington Books. Presented at Second Annual Meeting of the Society for Traumatic Stress Studies, September 29, 1986.

Krugman, R.D. & Krugman, M.K., (March, 1984). Emotional abuse in the classroom. American Journal of Diseases of Children, 138, 284-286.

Lauchear, V.S. (1985). The impact of maltreatment on children's psychosocial adjustment: A review of the research. Special issue: C. Henry Kempe memorial research issue. Child Abuse & Neglect, 9(2), 251-263.

Lennox, N. (1982). Teacher use of corporal punishment as a function of modeling behavior. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Temple University.

Laury, G.V. & Meerloo, J.A. (1967). Psychiatric Quarterly, 41 (2), 203-254.

Lifton, R.J. & Olson, E. (1976). The human meaning of total disaster: The Buffalo Creek experience. Psychiatry, 39, 1-18.

Lindy, J.D. & Titchener, J. (1983). Acts of God and man: Long-term character change in survivors of disasters and the law. Behavioral Sciences & the Law, 1(3), 85-96.

McDowell, E. & Friedman, R. (1979). An analysis of editorial opinions regarding corporal punishment: Some dynamics of regional differences. In I.A. Hyman & J. Wise (Eds.), Corporal Punishment in American Education (pp. 329-334). Philadelphia: Temple University Press.

Oates, R.K., Forrest, D., & Peacock, A. (1985). Self-esteem of abused children. Special issue: C. Henry Kempe memorial research issue. Child Abuse and Neglect, 9(2), 159-163.

Pennsylvania State Education Association v. Commonwealth of Pennsylvania Department of Public Welfare, et al. Respondents (October 28, 1982). School Law Information Exchange, XIX (74), Harrisburg Pennsylvania: Pennsylvania School Board Solicitors Association.

Pokalo, M. (1986). Caregivers' attitudes toward the severity of punishment for forty-four misbehaviors in mental retardation institutions. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Temple University.

Polier, J.W. (1975). Professional abuse of children: Responsibility for the delivery of services. American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 45 (3), 357-362.

Porter, B., & O'Leary, K. (1980). Marital discord and childhood behavior problems. Journal of Abnormal Child Psychology, 80, 287-295.

Psychologist criticizes 'closet' punishment. (1983, November 8). The News American, Baltimore, MD.

Pynoos, R. & Eth, S. (1985). Developmental perspectives on psychic trauma. In C.R. Figley (Ed.), Trauma and Its Wake, (pp. 36-52). New York: Brunner/Mazel.

Raifman, L.J. (1983). Problems of diagnosis and legal causation in courtroom use of post-traumatic stress disorder. Behavioral Sciences and the Law, 1 (3), 115-130.

Roland, B.C., Zelhart, P.F., Cochran, S.W., & Funderburk, V.W. (1985) MMPI correlates of clinical women who report early sexual abuse. Journal of Clinical Psychology, 41(6), 763-766.

Rosenbaum, A., & O'Leary, K. (1981) Children: The unintended victims of marital violence. American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 51, 692-699.

Silver, S.M. & Iacono, C.U. (1984). Factor-analytic support for DSM III's post-traumatic stress disorder in Vietnam veterans. Journal of Clinical Psychology, 40, (1), 115-130.

Sofer, B. (1983). Psychologist's attitudes toward corporal punishment. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Temple University.

Stein, A. (June 8, 1986). Children of poverty: Crises in New York. New York Times Sunday Magazine, 39, 40, 56, 68, 69, 88.

Terr, L.C. (1983). Chowchilla revisited: The effects of psychic trauma four years after a school bus kidnapping. American Journal of Psychiatry, 140 (12), 1543-1550.

West Virginia Department of Human Services v. Janet Boley and the Fayette County Board of Education (February 21, 1985). Civil Action No. 84-C-52.

Zelikoff, W. (1986) Evidence for a new diagnostic construct: Educator-induced post traumatic stress disorder. Unpublished manuscript, Temple University, Philadelphia.